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DIVERSITY IN THE COLLEGE COMPOSITION CLASSROOM:
A CASE STUDY ON SECOND-LANGUAGE WRITERS
AND EARLY COLLEGE ENTRANTS

being

A Thesis Presented to the Graduate Faculty
of the Fort Hays State University in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Arts

by

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ABSTRACT

Student populations in post-secondary institutions in the United States have increasingly become more diverse in the past several decades. This diversity includes students from distinct ethnic groups, of various linguistic backgrounds, and from a wide age range. English as a second language students have largely populated these classes, creating an exigency for modifications in the political, social, administrative, and pedagogical practices of these universities and colleges. Some higher education institutions have also diversified their student body by creating early acceptance programs for gifted students. Like second-language students, they might too present peculiarities that require changes in the way the university functions.

Early college entrance programs also admit international students, which might result in a classroom space with precocious gifted learners who also have diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. With this in mind, and in the attempt to bridge the scholarship on second-language writers in composition classes and on early college entrance programs, this case study investigates a first-year composition (FYC) classroom to identify the pedagogical practices adopted by the instructor to deal with this complex student demographics.

The data collection was based on ethnographic methods, such as class observations, analysis of course material, and a semi-structured interview. The data was gathered and analyzed using Constructivist Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2001). The analysis was also framed utilizing the concepts of negotiation and accommodation from

Intercultural Rhetoric Theory (Connor, 2011). The results showed that the complexity of the classroom requires subtle adaptations to the teacher's practices and beliefs, which is largely discussed by Intercultural Rhetoric Theory researchers. This study hopes to modestly contribute to the fields of second-language writing and early-college entrants as it attempts to bring these two contexts together within the discussion on writing pedagogies and composition studies.

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INTRODUCTION

Student populations in post-secondary institutions in the United States have increasingly become more diverse in the past several decades. This diversity includes students from distinct ethnic groups, of various linguistic backgrounds, and from a wide age range. Multilingual students, especially those who have English as a second language, have largely populated these classes, reaching 1.1 million students in 2016-2017, which comprises five percent of the total population enrolled in U.S. higher education. (Zong & Batalova, 2018). These demographic changes create an exigency for modifications in the political, social, administrative, and pedagogical practices of these universities and colleges. Second-language students “include international visa students, refugees, and permanent residents as well as naturalized and native-born citizens of the United States and Canada” (CCCC Statement, 2001). This research, however, is interested in those students who learned English in foreign contexts. Therefore, the term second-language students, here, is roughly used to refer to international groups of students who have grown up in non-English speaking countries. These groups of students might pose particular challenges to teaching, which add to the multiplicity of variations in learning styles and needs encountered in the complex configuration of demographics among college students.

Some higher education institutions have also diversified their student body by creating early acceptance programs for gifted students. Brody and Muratori (2015) state that these programs have a long history, with the first systematic program in the U.S.

starting in 1937. However, Hertzog and Chung (2015) report that only 21 colleges in the U.S. offer these programs, which indicates the need for further research. Like second-language students, those who are admitted to college to accelerate their education might, too, present peculiarities that require changes in the way the university functions. When students enter these programs, they are still in high school and the precocious transition to college life demands psychological and academic support that might differ from traditional students. Early-admitted learners have sparked the interest of scholars who investigate the history and the development of these programs, and the impact they have in learners' educational journeys before, during, and after they enter the university.

Although international college students in the U.S. have been the focus of much research, and some literature has been published on early college entrance programs, little has been discussed about the fact that some early college entrance programs also admit international students, therefore resulting in a classroom space with precocious gifted learners who also have diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. They are frequently part of STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) programs and are required to fulfill writing requirements, such as first-year composition classes. The same classes are also taken by native-English speakers who have started taking college classes while still in high school as well, further generating more complex demographics of students sharing the same learning space. Moreover, regardless of their first language or age, students' experiences with academic writing prior to college vary immensely, often creating discrepancies that can affect outcomes. With this in mind, and in the attempt to

bridge the scholarship on second-language writers in composition classes and on early college entrance programs, this case study is guided by the following research questions:

Research Questions (RQs)

RQ1 - How does the presence of second-language writers influence the pedagogical practices in the first-year composition classroom?

RQ2 - How are the pedagogical approaches adopted in the researched environment affected by the age range and academic writing level of the students?

RQ3 - Given the insight from the findings, how do the observed pedagogical practices relate to the recent discussion on the needs of second language writers and early college entrance students?

To answer these questions, first, the literature regarding second-language writers and early college admission is reviewed. Subsequently, the data collected utilizing an ethnographic framework, including class observations, analysis of curricular materials, and interviews are presented and discussed. The data included field notes from 300 minutes of class observation, which were expanded into more detailed descriptions after observations; course syllabus, assignments instructions and rubrics, Blackboard announcements, and 67 minutes of recorded interview, which was transcribed for analysis. Lastly, pedagogical applications and final considerations are presented. The conclusions do not claim to be exhaustive and generalizable due to the limited scope of the research. Nevertheless, this case-study seeks to provide new data sources and promote a discussion about pedagogical practices, which can contribute to narrow the gap between

the extensive research that has been done on second-language writers in U.S. first-year composition classes and the specific context of early college entrance programs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Second-Language Writers in the U.S. First-year Composition Class

The presence and needs of students from linguistic backgrounds other than English in American universities and colleges have been the source of extensive research in the past several decades. In 2001, The Conference on College Composition and Communication (CCCC), the main professional organization for researching and teaching composition, formally recognized these student populations as part of the composition classroom through the “CCCC Statement on Second-Language Writing and Writers.” The first part of the document states that the increasing number of international students in U.S. university classrooms is a result of more than individuals’ interest in pursuing education American. It affirms that “university and colleges have actively sought to increase the diversity of their student populations through the recruitment of international students” (CCCC Statement, 2001). Beyond the positive image a diverse body of students creates, Tardy and Whitting (2017) argue that these populations are “revenue generators” that keep the financial stability of universities during economic crises. For example, seeking ways to increase revenue, universities have invested in cross-border collaborations through International Branch Campuses (IBCs) and recruitment of international students. According to Crist (2017), the U.S. is the largest provider of IBCs, currently sponsoring one-third of all IBCs worldwide, which, in addition to the direct financial returns, facilitates the recruitment of new students. Zong and Batalova (2018) affirm that the U.S. is the country of choice for most international students, partially, as a

result of recruitment actions that aim at increasing the internal revenue. Because of that, the CCCC Statement urges higher learning institutions to develop pedagogical practices that meet the needs of international students. In summary, the statement provides guidelines that universities can use to rethink their instructional practices to create a better learning environment for these students from administrative actions to teachers' pedagogies.

Although prominent, the CCCC statement on second-language writing and writers takes part in a discussion that still seems to be marginal to the mainstream debates on composition. The WPA Outcomes Statement for first-year composition (2000), written and published by the Council of Writing Program Administrators, is an official document that aims to “represent and regularize writing programs’ priorities for First-Year Composition”. The document is underpinned by concepts that have historically comprised the academic discourse in the U.S., which can be recognized in the use of terms, such as rhetorical knowledge, context, audience, purpose, and critical thinking. Additionally, it includes fairly recent pedagogical inquiries, like digital literacies and genre. These aspects of learning should not, by any means, be disregarded due to their proven relevance in extensive research. However, studies on second-language writing have also become central to college composition, but the WPA Statement fails to engage in a direct dialogue with this scholarship, which seems to reinforce the historical view of second-language writing as a parallel line of research rather than an integral part of the discipline.

Second-language Writers: A Historical Perspective

Paul K. Matsuda, the leading researcher on second-language writers in the U.S. composition classes, has published a massive work of scholarship in which he discusses the language policies and pedagogies within the composition discourse through a historical lens. According to Matsuda (1999), although international students, non-native speakers of English, have become an important part of academic classes in American higher education for more than four decades, these populations had not been incorporated into the discussion of composition studies until relatively recently. Matsuda argues that this delay occurred because once the learning differences that second-language students present became evident in mainstream classes, universities realized they were not prepared to address these issues. Moreover, composition professionals considered language matters out of their scope since composition studies had been mostly developed for a type of classroom that was virtually linguistically homogeneous (Matsuda, 2006). Therefore, a division of labor took place and English as a Second Language (ESL) intensive programs were created, separating ESL students from those of English-speaking backgrounds. Subsequently, ESL teaching became a professional field within higher education institutions but as a lower level division. Both teachers and students involved in ESL were stigmatized as those who were underprepared to join the groups that composed the mainstream academic classes. The impacts of the sharp division between mainstream classes and ESL classes continue affecting the instructional practices to this day, as the CCCC and the WPA statements show. However, the actual college classrooms

do not reflect this divide as, even in institutions distant from the main urban areas, the number of international students has been increasing exponentially. In a recent chapter, Kim, Hammill, and Matsuda (2017) discuss the importance of a better dialogue between mainstream instructions and the ESL field to address the needs of linguistically and culturally diverse populations. The authors emphasize that both mainstream and ESL teachers need to be aware of the history, structure, and function of ESL programs in order to work together in the preparation of students for college education. Kim et al. (2017) explain that ESL teacher training focuses mostly on language teaching. This training often covers knowledge of pedagogical grammar, teaching methods, and second language acquisition, but writing knowledge and experience are often overlooked. Even when second-language writing comprises the program, few of these teachers become familiar with the pedagogical approaches present in college composition classes. On the other hand, composition instructors' training usually focus on composition and rhetoric, and writing theories but rarely provide teachers with knowledge of Applied Linguistics or TESOL. These areas have a long history of research on the learning processes of ESL students and, therefore, can assist composition teachers in the task of dealing with these students beyond the ESL division.

Instructors' Beliefs about Second-language Writers and Their Needs

The specific needs of second-language writers in relation to the beliefs teachers have about them are two main issues when these students attend First-Year Composition Classes. Matsuda, Saenkhum, and Accardi (2013) conducted a study on a large writing

program at a public university in the Southwestern United States, in which they collected data from a survey responded by 74 first-year composition teachers. The aim of their study was to learn about teachers' attitude toward multilingual writers taking college classes. The authors concluded that the teachers surveyed generally presented a positive attitude toward these student populations. Some instructors, however, did not acknowledge that second-language writers have specific needs either because of a lack of knowledge or because of their negative attitude. The analysis of their responses indicated a belief that rigid language requirements should be used to hinder international students from enrolling in composition classes. This kind of belief is part of what Matsuda (2006) calls the "policy of linguistic containment". This policy originates in the English-only model often utilized in composition teacher training. Further, the study of Matsuda et al. (2013) reveals an unwillingness of some instructors to acquire knowledge or make any changes in the courses because of second-language students. For some of them, ESL writers seem to disturb the class and prevent the improvement of traditional students. The beliefs and attitudes of composition instructors shown in Matsuda et al.'s study indicate the importance of including awareness of second-language writers' needs as part of teacher training programs.

Composition Research: Multilingualism, Translingualism, and STROL

Drawing upon the knowledge of various fields, such as rhetoric, cognitive psychology, linguistics, and educational theory (Foster, 1988), composition theory and pedagogy started as an attempt to bridge the gap between the knowledge of writing

secondary education had supposedly failed to provide and the high expectations at the university level. At the time, since linguistic diversity among students was nearly nonexistent, these theories and pedagogies targeted a monolingual student body. Thus, as Matsuda (1999) affirms, “the dominant discourse of U.S. college composition not only has accepted English Only as an ideal it already assumes the state of English-only, in which students are native English speakers by default.” (p. 637). Unlike the early years of composition scholarship, the field’s current research has made great efforts to recognize the linguistic and cultural diversity among the student body and address their particular needs. However, it naturally takes a long time for theoretical findings to turn into real classroom practices, especially when a body of knowledge has developed deep roots in the national academic culture, which seems to be the case of First-Year Composition and the monolingualist tradition. Contesting this view, current research in the field has approached the teaching of writing in a translingual perspective. According to Canagarajah (2016), a translingual orientation sees the interaction between language as a source for the creation of new grammars and new meanings. The author defines a translingual approach to writing instruction as “a form of situated literate practice where writers negotiate their semiotic resources in relation to the dominant conventions of language and rhetoric. The texts emerging from this practice are variable according to the interlocutors, ideologies, norms, and purposes in each context” (p. 266). The author states that adopting this approach has several impacts on the way teachers perceive differences in the classroom because their pedagogies would have to be constantly reshaped

according to each literacy event. Further, teacher training would need to focus on encouraging teachers to think of their practices with sensitivity to students, writing, and course diversity. This approach established a direct dialogue with the research on Students' Right to Their Own Language (STROL).

In 1974, the CCCC published a resolution that advocates for composition instruction to move away from the monolingual, English-only ideal (See Horner & Trimbur (2002). Since there is a close relationship between language and identity, imposing expectations for the use of a standard variety of English has proven to result in negative effects on students' writing development as students might need to build confidence to just write before they start navigating through the different variations. According to this view, instead of elevating one Standard English dialect, students should have the right to speak and write in their own language variety. Perryman-Clark, Kirkland, and Jackson (2015) affirm that this has been one of the most controversial resolutions the CCCC has accepted, which generated many debates among teachers trained in a monolingual teaching culture. Zorn (2010), for example, argues that the endorsement of STROL "stains" language education in the United States, while Fish (2009) believes that by bringing these discussions to the classroom ends up straying the composition classroom from its main focus, which is teaching writing. Because of this resistance, Horner and Trimbur (2002), affirm that monolingualism, as in the English Only policies, still predominates classrooms across the country. Barbier (2003) in his study of learning objectives in composition courses, concludes that many institutions

continue to use an explicit Standard English requirement, as well as statements for academic/education policy, and appropriate usage of conventions, grammar/mechanics. The STROL discussion includes not only International Students but every variety of English that has been historically dismissed by the academic discourse. Canagarajah (2006) argues that, beyond national varieties, composition instruction and academic writing should create a space for pluralization through the use of World Englishes. In this view, composition instructors should learn how to use code-meshing strategies, in which students are encouraged to use their linguistic background in rhetorically strategic ways and also develop their knowledge of the dominant varieties of English.

When Matsuda's historical accounts on second-language writers in the composition classroom are contrasted to theoretical frameworks, such as those proposed by Canagarajah and STROL scholars, there seems to emerge a certain tension between their perceptions on how to approach multilingual students. Matsuda's work has been imperative since, together with those of other authors such as Hyland, Tardy, Lu, Trimbur, and Horner, it has successfully drawn attention to second-language students in U.S. institutions. However, in order to state the relevance of his arguments within the academic debate and also because of his research focus, the author had to make assertive claims that tend to create a divide rather than promote inclusion. For example, the numerous statistics he presents to justify the need for investment in research on second-language writers might result in polarization of students based on native language, which he explicitly refutes. The disadvantages of contrastively approaching linguistic and

cultural differences are comprehensively discussed by Ulla Connor, as she advocates for an intercultural view of teaching.

Intercultural Rhetoric Theory

For several years, Connor has been the leading scholar in a theoretical discussion regarding second language writing previously known as Contrastive Rhetoric (See Connor, 1996). Connor (1998) defines Contrastive Rhetoric as “an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second-language writers” (p.105), which advanced the field of second language teaching and learning. In spite of that, the contrastive theory received several critiques including lack of transferability to teaching, strong structuralist view of language, and heavy reliance on English as a point of comparison. Considering the relevance of the critiques and looking forward to furthering her research, the author adopted Intercultural Rhetoric as a more appropriate name for the area of study. This changed reflected Connor’s interest in mutual, interrelated, reciprocal perspectives on cross-cultural teaching, which is implied by the prefix *inter-*, while “the prefix *contra-* in contrastive suggests acting against or in opposition to something” (Connor, 2011, p.1).

According to Connor (2011), intercultural rhetoric is the study of written discourse between and among individuals with different cultural backgrounds.”. By *discourse*, she means “language use beyond the sentence as well as social and ideological assumptions that are associated with communication” (p. 2). When applied to pedagogical practices, this approach may have substantial implications as social and

ideological elements are incorporated into every communicative event that takes place in the classroom to generate mutual understanding and promote learning. The line of thinking underlying the intercultural rhetoric theory a) supports the study of texts in context, b) takes into consideration the complex interactions that comprise cultures, such as the ways disciplinary and individual (small) cultures interact with national (large) cultures, and c) reinforce the need for accommodation and negotiation for effective communication as both spoken and written texts take part in intercultural encounters. Since this research seeks to identify and analyze not only major but also subtle pedagogical changes that attempt to account for the presence and needs of second-language writers in the composition classroom, the component of the intercultural rhetoric theory regarding accommodations and negotiations seems to be a consistent theoretical framework for discussion and analysis. Therefore, these concepts will be further explained the methods of analysis secession as they support the analysis in this study.

Based on the extensive scholarly work that has been published on linguistic and cultural diversity in the composition classroom, it is likely that, as graduate programs incorporate this knowledge to teacher training programs, international students' needs and rights will become part of the pedagogical practices in the learning environments. For this to happen, it is important that research on different teaching contexts continue to be conducted to further the discussion within the field to serve as a reference for other teachers. The present research connects with this broader scholarship as it analyzes

pedagogical practices to teach international second-language students in the context of early college education, focusing on the teaching of writing in a first-year composition classroom.

Research on Early College Entrants

Early college entrance programs have become popular in the U.S. because they provide high achieving students with the opportunity to accelerate their studies by taking college-level classes during their last years of high school. Although these students show a performance that is considered above average, research on these programs discusses the benefits and drawbacks to students' academic, social, and emotional life. Attending college at a younger age requires institutions to adapt their common practices and create policies specific to these populations. In the early stages of these programs, the main concerns were regarding the social and emotional ability of these students to cope with the pressures of college life.

Rogers (2007) performed a study based on what experiences and research on gifted-education shows as important considerations to teaching gifted students. In summary, the author presents five categories that account for the most prominent pedagogical practices for teaching gifted students. According to her, 1) Gifted and talented learners need daily challenge in their specific areas of talent, 2) opportunities should be provided on a regular basis for gifted learners to be unique and work independently in their areas of passion and talent, 3) various forms of subject-based and grade-based acceleration should be provided to gifted learners and their educational

needs require, 4) gifted learners should be given the opportunity to socialize and learn with like-ability peers, and 5) gifted students require a) specific curriculum areas, and b) differentiated instructional delivery regarding pace, amount of review and practice. These particular concerns indicate the need for specific teacher training to work with gifted students.

Plunkett and Kronborg (2011) argue that “most teachers enter the profession without having any dedicated studies pertaining to gifted education, yet many go on to teach gifted students” (p.1). They affirm that extensive research has shown the value of training teacher to work with these student populations since training may improve teachers’ attitudes and equip them to provide appropriate teaching for gifted students. In their research on teachers’ opinions about gifted education they found that some teachers acknowledge that gifted students have particular needs and, therefore, teachers need support to provide special services. Some teachers, however, show a negative attitude as they ideologically object to gifted programs and do not consider them a priority.

Although teacher-training opportunities to work with gifted students vary from place to place, generally for lack of financial support or knowledge of the field, discussion of gifted education and pedagogies has become an integral part of primary and secondary schools. The same discussion does not seem to take place with the same intensity at the college level. Students identified as gifted prior to college might have better chances being accepted by universities, including early entrance programs, but,

unlike secondary schools, their learning needs do not seem to be a major concern at the university level.

Kansas Academy of Mathematics and Science (KAMS)

Smith, Schmidt, Allmond, and Feldkamp (2016), when sharing their experiences with the Kansas Academy of Mathematics and Science (KAMS) argue that institutions lack support to provide appropriate education to gifted students. According to them, there is a misunderstanding that gifted students can achieve success without any support because of their status. In her speech, Ms. Smith, instructor of English, shared that in her first composition class with the KAMS students, she started to realize that there was something different about that group. Later, she learned that not only were they regarded as gifted, but they were also from different nationalities and, although taking college classes, only 16 years old. Smith conducted her classes in a project-based approach that gained national recognition and inspired several other higher-education institutions to follow. Despite her success, her story suggests the importance of teacher preparation in the college level as well. Moreover, students such as those in the KAMS programs are often accepted to college early because of their academic achievement in the STEM fields, but little has been researched about the pedagogical practices regarding their presence in the English Composition Class.

In the available literature, the only article found on gifted students in the composition classes was Ruth Reeves' (1957), "The Gifted Student in the Composition." In this article, the author focuses on mechanics and usage of the language. She

approaches these topics by contrasting gifted and non-gifted students and providing strategies to deal with mixed classrooms in a way that both types of students could be challenged within their capabilities. Thus, as the focus of Reeves' research is high school composition classes with regular and gifted students, it differs greatly from the goal of the present research, which is to examine a different context and a different student population. The present study contributes to the scholarship on gifted education as it aims at analyzing the writing pedagogies used to teach these students in a multilingual college composition classroom, which has not been the focus of any previous research.

METHOD

Context

The University

The study was conducted at a relatively small, rural university in the Midwestern United States. According to the university's website, the current enrollment is 15,100 with 6,882 taking online classes through the virtual college, 3,570 students at the university campus in China, and only 4,648 on the U.S. campus. The institution is located in an area with little demographic diversity, with 93.8 % of the population considered white (United States Census Bureau, 2017). The presence of the university in the town, however, tends to attract more diverse groups to the area, including students from other countries. The university has a few projects that directly or indirectly make the admission processes more inclusive. The so-called residential program aims at preparing high school Hispanic and Latino students for higher education, the campus in China facilitates the exchange possibilities for Chinese students, and the state's Academy of Mathematics and Science program for bright high school students focusing on Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) also brings to campus several students from other countries, especially from China and Korea.

The English Department and the Writing Program

The English department at this institution offers several writing courses, such as Professional Writing, Creative Writing, and also First-Year English Composition, which was the focus of the present study. Concurrent with the development of this research, the

department offered 49 sections of English Composition, split between 29 on-campus sessions and 20 through the Virtual College taught by a total of 20 instructors. First-Year Composition classes are divided into two courses, English Composition I (ENG 101) and II (ENG 102). The goal of ENG 101, as stated in the department's website is the "study and application of rhetorical principles of writing with particular emphasis on analyzing and writing expository prose." ENG 102, in turn, emphasizes the "study of rhetorical principles of writing with particular emphasis on logic, argumentation, research, style, and analysis of printed materials." Unlike many larger universities, composition classes at this institution are not taught by graduate students. Additionally, the degree of the instructors in charge varies but most have at least one master's degree and some have a Ph.D. Their educational backgrounds also vary but the majority concentrate on literary studies or composition. Less than a fourth of the on-campus instructors mention any sort of ESL or TESOL background as part of their education and only one of them seems to have ESL as a main area.

Participants

The recruitment procedures were IRB-approved prior to the beginning of the process. To recruit the subjects interested in taking part in this research project, an email was sent to the chair of the English Department, asking him to contact the composition faculty. In the email, the chair informed the composition instructors about the purpose of the research and asked those who were currently teaching classes with multilingual writers and were interested in participating to respond to it. The researchers receive a few

responses and asked the department chair to email faculty again, but no one else seemed to be interested. There are several possible explanations for that, For example, this institution is considered to be stronger in teaching and not in research; therefore, this type of project is not common and instructors might have thought the study would evaluate their teaching performance. There is also a chance of overloaded teachers who had no conditions to add the participation to their responsibilities at the moment or even the fact that the classes they were teaching did not have any multilingual student. From those emails received, the researcher had to make some ethical choices, such as the kind of relationship he had with the instructor to avoid biases and conflict of interest. At the end, the researcher decided to accept one participant and develop a case study.

The selections of instructor and class followed an initial analysis of which environment, student demographics, and instructor's experience most accurately matched the research goals. Even though the research conditions did not allow for research on a larger scale, this case study contributes to the field due to its potential to capture and provide in-depth analysis of specific contexts not extensively studied. In this case, 1) a rural university, as described above, 2) a multilingual composition class composed by L1 and L2, 3) high school students, from the U.S. and from other countries, taking a mainstream college class together, and 4) a senior instructor teaching her last course before concluding her career in education and retiring.

The Students

The profile of the students who were attending this particular composition class seemed distinctly interesting. Not only were they multilingual writers from a wide variety of backgrounds, but they were also participants of a state program for high school students who showed an above average performance in the Mathematics and Science and were interested in the STEM field.

The Academy of Mathematics and Science program was established in the state by legislative action in 2006, and at the researched university in 2011. This program consists of giving under-challenged high school students access to an advanced curriculum by taking 68 hours of college-level classes. The university is allowed to accept up to 40 students from the state and 15 international students through a project called International Academy of Science (IAMS). All students must prove high scores in Mathematics and Science, in addition to other requirements, such as standardized exams. IAMS students must also provide a TOEFL score. Interestingly, although these students are required to take composition classes and write effectively in their disciplines, the absence of any information regarding students' writing skills seems to indicate that writing is not a major concern though it directly affects students' grades and success in college.

The Instructor

The instructor who volunteered to participate in this study has extensive experience in teaching. She has a degree in English and her experience at the post-secondary level includes Composition, Business and Technical Writing, and Literature of the American South. In addition to 14 years of experience in college education, the teacher worked in

the private sector with public relations and marketing and, before that, with teaching at the secondary level.

Data Source

To answer the research questions guiding this study, data was collected from multiple sources utilizing diverse ethnographic methods. First, the researcher collected data through class observations. During each class, both instructor and students were observed and notes were taken to inform later analysis. The pedagogy, behavior, and attitudes of the instructor were carefully analyzed during the class period, as well as during interaction with students before and after the class. Special attention was given to what happened during interactions with second-language writers but other students' participation was also included to find out if there were any differences in the teaching approach based on students' first language. The reactions, attitudes, and behavior of students, especially second-language writers, were carefully examined. After the observations, the notes taken were used to guide a thick description of the events. Thick descriptions, as discussed by Geertz (1973) are a way of describing actions, words, things, etc. according to the cultural context and meanings given by people involved in that specific culture.

In addition to the class observations, class materials, such as syllabus, rubrics, assignment instructions, and announcements were also used to provide information about the practices of the instructor. These materials were analyzed in an attempt to understand if the way information was presented, the kinds of assignments, the grading criteria, etc.

had any particular characteristics that could indicate the presence of multilingual writers in that class. The materials analyzed do not include any text produced by students since the focus of this study is on the pedagogical practices adopted by the teacher.

In order to collect further data to answer the research questions, the instructor also agreed to take part in a semi-structured interview, which was conducted after the data from class observations and materials were gathered and analyzed. The questions asked during the interview were elaborated to collect information about the instructor's educational background and better understand specific issues regarding the pedagogical practices concerning multilingual writers.

Methods of Analysis

The present research was conducted based on the theoretical assumptions of Grounded Theory (Charmaz, 2001). According to this theory, a method of analysis is not considered an end in itself but, rather, a means to promote learning through the selection of certain tools. Charmaz's (2001) approach to analysis is built upon the combination of a symbolic interactionist theoretical perspective with constructivist methods, which suggests that "a) multiple realities exist, b) data reflect the researcher's and the research participants mutual constructions, and c) the researcher, however incompletely, enters and is affected by participants' worlds" (p. 188). According to this theory, participants are co-creators of the study, working together with researcher to co-create their field. Constructivist Grounded Theory values participants' agency into the study extrapolating the common role they usually play in research as a source of information that is later

analyzed by the researcher alone. Based on this approach, the present research sought to invite the instructor's agency into the study from the foundation of the project, co-creating it through a semi-structured approach that allowed for changes in the direction of the research as it progressed.

In this research, adopting a constructivist approach to Grounded Theory indicates that the categories utilized during data analysis emerged from an interpretative view of the classroom culture and does not intend to portray an exact picture of it. The interpretation, however, resulted from a joint construction between the researcher and participants through qualitative methods based on ethnographic research.

Grounded Theory is compatible with the discussions proposed by Intercultural Rhetoric Theory (Connor, 2011) used to frame the data analysis through an intercultural perspective. Negotiation and accommodation are two major concepts in this theory. According to Connor (2011), "in order to understand each other fully, speakers and hearers need to adjust to each other's styles and negotiate meaning" (p.31). Connor also includes written texts as a form of communication that requires accommodation and negotiation. These two concepts are used in the present research not only to set a theoretical ground but also a part of the analytical methods. Both Constructivist Grounded Theory and Intercultural Rhetoric Theory seem to avoid the positivist understanding of truth, which turns the analysis into a process of discovery and (re)construction of realities within a spectrum of possibilities. Although not using the terms described above, research developed upon Constructivist Grounded Theory seeks

to adjust and negotiate the meaning of the events researched between researcher and participants. For example, instead of doing a structured interview, a semi-structured interview was preferred. This choice was made to allow for a type of research that is mutually constructed among the subjects involved from the ground up. Similarly, after the direction of the research was negotiated and accommodations were made, the data analysis sought to identify the instances in which the teacher adjusted her practices to negotiate the learning process of second-language writers and early-college entrants. The attempt to construct and portray the classroom reality in this research focuses not only in major events, rather it intends to learn the nuances of implicit meanings through experiential views, which are supported by both grounded theory of analysis and Intercultural Rhetoric Theory.

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The present research attempts to promote a discussion about second-language writers and early college entrance students through examining the pedagogical practices in a composition classroom. It also seeks to establish a dialogue between these practices and the composition scholarship to modestly contribute to the studies in the field. The analysis of the data does not intend to look at the pedagogical practices adopted in this classroom through a contrastive lens; therefore, the findings do not show binary results as in “right” or “wrong”, or in pedagogies for second-language vs. those for first-language writers. Rather, the analysis suggests that all the complexities combined in the researched classroom call for subtle adaptations that seek to accommodate and negotiate experiences and values, which is consistent with intercultural approaches. Thus, the following discussion seeks to find instances of accommodation and negotiation primarily concerning the presence of second-language writers in the studied composition classroom and, to a lesser extent, identify how these instances might be influenced by the age range of the students attending this course.

RQ1: How Does the Presence of Second-language Writers Influence the Pedagogical Practices in the Researched Classroom?

Research on second-language writers in the composition class (Matsuda et al, 2011) emphasizes the importance of appropriate teacher training to work with this specific student demographic. Although teacher training may be an important resource to prepare instructors for the teaching task, teachers’ practices are also a valuable source of

knowledge as they build empirical knowledge when given the opportunity to work with diverse populations. During the interview, when asked about her education and training opportunities to work with second-language writers, the instructor did not report instances of formal training; however, she drew upon several moments throughout her life in which she was exposed to non-native speakers of English as well as other disadvantaged populations to support her practices.

The lack of training in second-language writing during the teacher's initial education is not surprising given the time the instructor graduated from college and pursued her MA, in the early 1970s and 2000s, respectively. At these times, research on second-language writing was relatively recent to appear in teacher preparation curricula, especially in rural areas, such as those where the teacher pursued her degrees. Despite that, exposure to diversified groups through travel and professional experiences seems to have increased the instructor's cultural awareness and influenced her teaching approaches and beliefs. For example, the instructor reports that her students both at the secondary and postsecondary levels were, initially, all native speaker of English. Then, the student demographics in her classes gradually transitioned to a few Chinese and Korean students and, subsequently, students from various linguistic backgrounds, such as Arabic, French, German, and from some Pacific Rim countries: "very eclectic mix", she states. Additionally, her background in the private sector has a relevant impact on her teaching. Working with public relations and marketing, the teacher seems to have developed a particular view of what is important for students' success after college. During her

classes, she realized that the STEM students, particularly the Asians, are career-oriented. Therefore, she believes that reinforcing the usefulness of good writing skills adds value to her teaching. This variety of experiences has likely made the teacher more conscious of how linguistic and cultural disparities have a role in teaching.

The classroom routine is settled into three major types of activity: 1) Teacher Talking Time (TTT), which is split into three moments: a) explanation, b) instruction and c) interaction with students and feedback. 2) Student Taking Time (STT) in which students are encouraged to a) interact with the teacher and b) interact with each other. Also, in certain activities 3) students are given time to work individually, either to brainstorm ideas or review their classmate's work. (for a detailed discussion of TTT and STT, see Ashari & Budiarha, 2016). Apart from what has been explicitly stated during the interview, it is hard to determine the choices deliberately made because of second-language writers' presence in the classroom. Therefore, the pedagogical choices the teacher makes are analyzed primarily based on the observed practices that seem to account for the needs and presence of second-language writers in this setting and on the information drawn from the interview and classroom material.

Concerns about Comprehension

As seen in the historical analyses of second-language writers in composition classes, largely discussed by Matsuda, composition instructors often perceive linguistic challenges of second-language writers as an issue that should be dealt with elsewhere, not in the composition class. Fortunately, this is not the case of the observed instructor.

Although she is aware that taking this role is labor-intensive and time-consuming, the teacher acknowledges, in several situations, that both her own use of language and students' language skills might influence the learning process and their ability to successfully meet the expectations for the class. Therefore, the collected data indicates that the comprehension of both spoken and written texts is a major concern for the teacher.

The first action taken by the teacher to provide effective instruction to second-language writers is making individual appointments after students write the first essay. During these conferences, she attempts to "pursue their capabilities" and assess their comprehension skills. She also tries to get a sense of students' writing experiences and communication skills because, unlike in ENG 101 classes, ENG 102 instructors are completely unaware of students' writing skills before the semester begins and only have access to basic information, such as their nationality and first-language. The teacher admits that meeting with students for individual conferences is *"time-consuming, it's laborious, but hopefully it pays off. ... [T]hey get a little more comfortable and you have a sense of just through their vocabulary, their sentence construction, and, in conversation, I think you get a better sense of their potential."* The collected data does not allow for an accurate evaluation of how this initial assessment informs the teacher's practices; however, the scheduling of these meetings indicates the teacher's concern about comprehension and also allows for her to account for variance, which is an important part of her pedagogy.

During instruction, the teacher deals primarily with the comprehension of information that might prevent students from understanding the task. Rather than expecting correctness and accuracy, the teacher seeks to promote learning by categorizing and prioritizing information that directly addresses specific teaching goals. When students are unable to fully comprehend instructions, the teacher does not show disappointment or resort to direct correction. Instead, she scaffolds students' development by asking follow-up questions and interacting with the information students offered. For example, to raise audience awareness for a Public Service Announcement assignment, the teacher asked students to brainstorm topics that she, as the target audience, would be interested in reading. One of the second-language writers wrote about topics that addressed a different audience, which was noted by the other students. However, instead of focusing on the misunderstanding, the teacher asked questions to confirm the student had a specific audience in mind. When he was able to describe his audience, the teacher immediately changed the focus to the content the student had written about. As the main goal of the activity had been accomplished and the student proved he knew his audience, we can conclude that the teacher did not directly address the mistake because it would not interfere with the purpose of the activity. This example shows that when the teacher recognized the students' mistake, she sought to negotiate the misinterpretation of the instruction. In the process of negotiation, she reevaluated the relevance of the misunderstanding at that specific moment and readjusted her expectations. This

accommodation might have been necessary for various reasons, such as what being corrected in front of the class would culturally mean to the student.

Interactions between students and the teacher, such as the one described above, are part of a set of classroom routines the teacher establishes to promote comprehension. Overall, the teacher seems to believe that, in order to understand the content, this group of students requires extensive explanations, detailed instructions, and several examples. Broadly, Teacher Talking Time (TTT) accounts for approximately 60% of the class time because of the large amount of input the teacher thinks students need. The remaining time is divided into short group/pair activities, question-answer student-teacher interactions, and short writing activities.

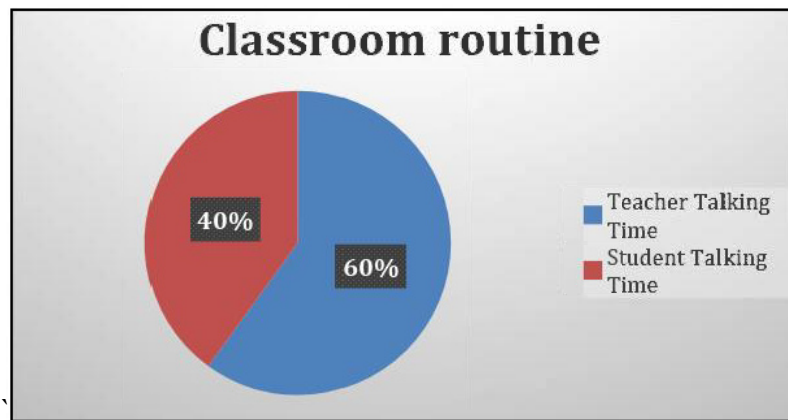


Figure 1. Percentage of Teacher Talking Time (TTT) and Student Talking Time (STT) during classes.

For example, the teacher spent two classes teaching students how to write an email to professors requesting a letter of recommendation. First, she provided a detailed explanation about topics, such as when a letter might be required, how teachers may react

to the request based on (lack of) important information, formatting, correctness, and timing. Following the explanation, the teacher used a few real examples of emails from her students. The examples intended to show students what they should not do. The instructor displayed the examples using the projector and asked students to evaluate and point out why the emails were not appropriate. The kinds of things students pointed out were mostly regarding punctuation, grammar, and formatting. These two activities, mostly the explanations and instructions, took most of the class time. Following the instructions, students were asked to write an email to a professor making a letter of recommendation request, as a homework activity. To ensure comprehension, the teacher provided several oral examples of possible professors, scholarships or grants, and exchange programs students could utilize to request the letter of recommendation. Although the numerous examples were intended to facilitate students' comprehension, they seem to have distracted students and generated confusion, which required the teacher to provide further explanation (FIGURE 2).

The misunderstanding of the teacher's instruction might have occurred because some of the international students felt overwhelmed, especially because of the type of example the teacher gave. Some of the examples were so full of culture-bound information, including complex names of organizations, scholarships, universities, government agencies, acronyms, and positions that, if students were not familiar with them, it could be difficult for them to separate the core instruction for the activity from the examples. Additionally, for the assignment, students were expected to find a real

situation where a letter of recommendation was required. Then, they would have to write the email to a professor but send it to the instructor. However, when the teacher explained the assignment, she had some checkpoints that were particularly relevant when sending an email to her. Instead of raising their hands to clarify the information, students waited until the end of the class to ask for clarification.

Clarifications on the Assignment
Posted on: Friday, April 13, 2018 12:02:47 PM CDT

Please, do NOT email the professor who you've selected to receive your request for a letter of recommendation. Instead, you will email ME your "sample email request" to [REDACTED]. However, the body of the email will relate to your request for that specific professor. For instance, you may be requesting a Geosciences professor to write a letter based on your accomplishments in his/her class as relates to an internship or scholarship you want to pursue. Therefore, in the email itself you will use that professor's name, but DO NOT email the professor your request.

For some of you, this assignment is a great opportunity to practice writing email requests that you may send next fall.

Example - Option 1: (This would be appropriate if you have not already spoken to the professor about writing a letter of recommendation.)

Dr. Thompson,

I wondered if you would be willing and/or have the time to write a letter of recommendation on my behalf. In mid-October, I will begin the application process to various universities.

Example - Option 2: (This would be used if you have already spoken with the professor about writing a letter of recommendation on your behalf, and he/she has agreed to do so.)

Dr. Thompson,

Thank you for agreeing to write a letter of recommendation on my behalf. I plan to apply to several universities in mid-October.

Figure 2. Clarification on Blackboard. Example of assignment clarification provided by the instructor after class.

The extra time the teacher spends with students after class is also part of the pedagogical practices adopted by the teacher to develop comprehension. These moments are valuable instances in which the teacher negotiates understanding and accommodates students' needs. This type of interaction seems to become a habitual activity as cultural differences come into play. The students who seek clarification after class were mostly

the second-language writers coming from Asian countries. The teacher reports that the education system in some of these countries discourages students from participating in class because teaching approaches are primarily teacher-centered, and students' participation is perceived as a disruption.

The teacher is aware that asking questions is part of comprehension development and, therefore, constantly encourages students to do so, as she states in the interview: *“Obviously, culturally they are most inhibited to indicate to an instructor that he or she is talking too rapidly is covering something that they don't understand. So, I repeat very, very often. You have to tell me to slow down if you don't understand something, you need to see me after class or simply just say, I don't understand what you covered.”* Part of the teacher's concern with regard to these students' background seems to be grounded in the belief that if students do not ask questions, they do not understand, and if they do not understand, they are ultimately unable to develop the kind of critical thinking Western education seeks to promote. Therefore, in her logic and sequencing, there are different levels of comprehension and, as students become more experienced with the language, they might develop a better understanding of the target culture. When students think critically, they show that they have progressed from a linguistic concern with the understanding of words to deeper and more abstract levels of thought and these abstract thoughts reflect certain Western patterns of thinking. One way the teacher attempts to foster students' critical comprehension is by selecting genres that require inquiry and criticality. For example, when the teacher worked with the genre Public Service

Announcement (PSA), she asked them to consider topics that would strike the chosen audience. To have them think critically, she showed examples of public announcements that had a strong ethical appeal, striking topics, and shocking pictorial elements regarding environmental issues and social issues.

The teacher also expresses concerns regarding the way her fast-paced speech and movements might affect students' learning. When answering the question about the transition in her career to a linguistically diverse student population she says, *"I didn't want to shock them and traumatize them with my continual hand gestures. With a rapid speech pattern and usually at the beginning of the semester, if I have nonnative speakers, I will tell them, give me the basketball time-out sign if I need to slow down."* This perception of students' capabilities is a common belief that echoes a misconception registered in the history of second-language acquisition. In the early years of the field, second language issues were seen as a cognitive disability that required special treatment. To this day, many people believe that by speaking slowly and with exaggerated articulation, second-language students will understand better. Although it might be an effective strategy for beginners, when dealing with more proficient students, if a meaningful word or expression is unknown by the students, no matter how slow the speaker speaks, the student might still have a hard time to understand the message. Contextual clues might help, but explanations and/or confirmation might be necessary. Therefore, the concern of the teacher about her gesticulation and speaking style might help students to a certain extent, but lexical choices may be an even more striking issue.

In ESL classes, increasing students' lexical repertoire is seen as a major concern because, mainly in the early stages of their learning process, students are unable to use contextual evidence to produce meaning. Thus, ESL teachers often try to teach students as many words as possible so that they can express their thoughts and also understand those of others. However, for several decades, research in second-language acquisition has attempted to discover how people acquire new vocabulary. Some of the findings show that memory and context (rather than teaching isolated words) play a crucial role in vocabulary improvement.

Although it is hard to pinpoint how the instructor developed awareness of second-language writers' issues, her knowledge and attitudes regarding vocabulary choice also manifested during the interview: *"In giving examples in, in my vocabulary, if I had a group of gifted students in an English high school class, I would dress up my vocabulary and help them try to expand theirs. If I had students who weren't doing well to use Standard English in a paper, I would not try to talk down to them but not use vocabulary that would be confusing. So I tried to tailor it."* Through this statement, the teacher shows a legitimate concern that leads to tailored instruction in a way that both experienced and inexperienced writers will have their needs addressed. Although one might argue that differences among students' writing skills are found in every writing classroom, the numerous variables in this researched environment seem to escalate the teachers' challenges. In the excerpt above, the teacher seems to hypothesize a homogeneous classroom; however, this is far from being the reality of this classroom.

Having acknowledged how complex the researched environment is and knowing that there might be no easy road to approach these discrepancies among students, it seems appropriate to discuss how the concerns about comprehension relate to the vocabulary issue during the observations. In general, it seems hard for the teacher to incorporate her beliefs about vocabulary into her practices. The fast-paced speech and movements do not seem to present a major issue, but the elevated vocabulary usage and some culture-bound examples might sometimes disrupt students' overall comprehension of explanations and instructions. (See table 1) Even if the teacher considers all students advanced and intends to expand their vocabulary, some students might get confused since the words and expressions are rarely defined and explained. The table below shows a few examples of words and expressions that might have been confusing for second-language students.

Vocabulary and Expressions	
Words	Expressions
Cognizant	To get down to the short rows
Supercilious	To get it in your gut
Reticent	Dry run

Table 1

Second-language writers often come from a wide variety of backgrounds and rather than showing a stereotyped preconception of students, the teacher attempts to learn more about her students' experiences with writing, like in the first individual conference mentioned above, she says the following *"during that one-on-one conference, we would*

talk about how long they have been in the country, if they just arrived. Some of them have attended private schools or public schools here for one year, maybe when they were five or six years old and they went back to their native country. But I get a lot better sense not only finding out about where they're from. What kind of education they've had, how much exposure to the English”

Because of that, some second-language writers showed an advanced knowledge of the language while others seemed to be struggling to perform the activities. For these students, in particular, elevated vocabulary could potentially result in a lack of understanding, but these kinds of words and expressions seem to be naturally used by the teacher and reveal one of the two major characteristics of her *ethos*. It important to note that, even though it might be difficult for the teacher to constantly negotiate her vocabulary use to accommodate the level of students’ proficiency, making the effort to meet students individually to try to get a sense of their knowledge is by itself a sign that the teacher looks for ways to negotiate her practices to meet students’ needs. Moreover, in spite of her ability to use sophisticated language, she evidences some ease with lower order concerns while grading students’ texts, which also shows negotiation.

The Teacher’s Ethos

People perform and act differently in each of the multiple places, situations, and roles they take on in life. Both in the interview and in the class observations, it was noted that the teacher’s ethos consists of a two-faceted persona that serves as an overarching frame for the way instruction occurs.

The first aspect of the teacher's ethos regards her traditional role. It is widely known that US first-year composition instruction is heavily based on classical rhetoric. Writing pedagogy raises constant debates among scholars inside and outside the composition field; nevertheless, part of the teacher's approach resembles some of the traditions of the composition field. For example, the use of specific terms from classical rhetoric, such as ethos, pathos, logos and a strong focus on the role of the audience, for example, reveal the theories underlying her pedagogical practices, which becomes a facet of her persona as a teacher. Additionally, before the beginning of her career in post-secondary education, the teacher worked for many years in the private sector with public relations and marketing, which seems to have influenced her teaching style. These might partially explain the teacher's use of sophisticated vocabulary as she might have been formally trained to use elevated vocabulary as a rhetorical strategy throughout her professional career, which may also influence her beliefs about the kinds of writing students may ultimately be expected to produce. Moreover, as a native speaker working with academic English for several years, evaluating and tailoring the way she normally uses language to address such a complex classroom might be extremely challenging.

Although students' graded assignments were not part of this research data, the gathered data suggests that some of the teacher's concerns regarding students' writing are organization, syntax, punctuation, and formatting. During the interview, the teacher reports that in the diagnostic assessment she tries to evaluate "*how comfortable they* (the students) *are in reading instructions and, then, transferring that to the written, their*

syntax, organization, you know, all the basics we look for.” From the perspective of a second-language writer, the “basics” mentioned by the teacher might be additionally challenging if compared to students who have English as their first language, as both linguistic and cultural backgrounds inform students’ cognitive processes.

For example, in a certain activity, the teacher instructed students to think about a specific audience and write down five topics they thought would interest this audience. In that class, only eight students were present, four native speaker of English and four non-native speakers. After the students had spent some time brainstorming, the teacher asked them to share their ideas with the class. Interestingly, the four American students seemed to have selected the audience first and, then, the topics, as the teacher had instructed. The four non-American students apparently did the opposite. These students chose a topic of their interest, for instance, social media; however, when asked about the specific audience, the four students provided the same answer - “a general audience”. With the first student, the teacher asked questions regarding the topic to narrow it down and have a more focused audience. She ended up accepting the broader topic and audience because the students seemed to have a hard time imagining an audience to address since they were writing the paper to turn in to the teacher. Again, although focused-audience seems to be a major concern for the teacher, the way she approached the situation above is evidence of how she negotiates her beliefs as a teacher with the abilities and perspectives of her students. This difficulty to address an audience might be because of the way students were taught to think during their educational journey, which shows that, in a multicultural

classroom, culture, and prior language experiences shape the way students think and write and, therefore, even students' knowledge of the "basics" may vary greatly and affect development.

With that in mind, the teaching approach adopted in this classroom seems to focus primarily on the oral discussion of topics and later on actual features of the written text. As for the latest, the teacher works mostly with higher-order concerns rather than focusing on lower-order concerns, as she expresses: *"I'm not as concerned that everything be word perfect as that they have a sense of organization. That they transitioned from one point to the other. That they learned some of the basics of punctuation."*

In addition to the text organization, second-language writers might have issues at the sentence level that are different from those of native speakers of English. These issues, however, do not seem to be perceived by the teacher as relevant as topic discussion or organization, especially due to the conflict between time constraints and her belief that students learn grammar as they are exposed to the language. During the interview, she states: *"I try not to belabor that too much and encourage them that the longer they're here, the more they will intuitively get the correct verb tense"*.

By saying this, the teacher shows awareness of the relationship that language and culture have. This understanding is consistent with the Intercultural Rhetoric Theory as it sees culture and the interaction between cultures as central to language development. Moreover, it seems that the way she perceives her own persona emphasizes the

maternalistic side of her teaching style. However, concerns with grammar and mechanics outnumber other concerns in her assignment rubrics, which indicates the presence of the traditional professor as well:

Assignment Rubric - Argumentative Essay #1 - Helicopter Parenting

❖ Effective title
❖ Introduction “hooks” reader’s attention/interest
❖ Clear thesis statement
➤ All paragraphs relate to thesis
❖ Full development of each paragraph
❖ Inclusion of facts and examples—not just general statements—support thesis
✓ Correct order: time order (first, second, third); spatial order (left to right, top to bottom); climactic order (placement of points having increasing importance)
❖ Conclusion sums up main viewpoint and indicates future implications or effects without listing key points that support the thesis
❖ Smooth transition from one point to the next
✓ Variety of sentence structure
✓ Consistent verb tense
✓ Use of active verbs—not passive verbs
✓ Streamlined wording (no unnecessary repetition or words, phrases, or information)
✓ Parallelism
✓ Grammar
✓ Punctuation
▪ Format (Times New Roman 12 pt; one-inch top, left, bottom, and ragged-right margins)
▪ Consistent double-spacing between every line—including the Works Cited page

Table 2

❖ Content	➤ Organization	✓ Mechanics	▪ Formatting
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The benefits and drawbacks of explicitly teaching grammar have been largely discussed within different fields, such as composition studies, linguistics, and ESL scholarship. Without looking at the way the teacher corrects and grades students' papers, it is difficult to determine how much she takes grammatical errors into her evaluation. On one hand, the rubric presents a greater number of categories related to grammar, which might indicate her high expectations. On the other hand, as she organizes her rubric, these grammar-related categories appear lower on the list, after content and organization. In this case, her expectations of students in this aspect could be lower and consistent with her beliefs that students improve grammar by having longer exposure to the target language and culture.

Again, the variables among the student population in this class require the teacher to make certain choices, negotiate, and attempt to accommodate the needs of the students, as she states: *"That is a problem again, when you have native speakers and non-native speakers because here are these poor souls trying to create a complete sentence and you have others who have verbal dexterity and a tremendous vocabulary, but they just need that punctuation."* In order to deal with this situation, the teacher seems to focus the instructions on content that can be beneficial to all students, and try to find alternative solutions to problems specific groups might present. For example, regarding second-language writers' need for explicit grammar instruction, she requires students to go to the university writing center: *"That's something I probably didn't do as much when I initially taught the KAMS students who were from other countries and I soon learned that was the*

only way I could attempt to have them correct repeated problems. Whether it was passive voice, whether it was poor syntax, organization, and, obviously, especially with some of the students from the Asian countries, they are more accustomed to not only speaking but write in a more circular rather than the linear pattern and whew, that's a tough thing. You can only go over it so many times in class without losing the interest of the native speakers."

It might be difficult for the instructor to have a complete knowledge of what happens when students go to the writing center. In spite of that, she keeps track of writing center appointment reports and takes students' effort into consideration, as she explains in the interview: *"If they're that tenacious and are that willing to work that hard, it is worth reinforcing and I give them that opportunity, at the beginning of the semester to know if they consistently work hard in the writing center, then, they will be rewarded if they are only, you know, one percent away from the next grade level."*

Another facet of the teacher's ethos regards the way her personality and life experiences influence her pedagogical practices. When asked about why she was chosen to teach these students, the teacher says: *"Perhaps because I am an older faculty member, there was a sense of maternalism about me that possibly might have had something to do with it."* The fact that the instructor is a senior professor who is also a mother and a grandmother seems to have influenced the view of the department and also is present in the way she deals with students in the classroom. While she establishes her credibility through the traditional aspect of her persona, she attempts to engage students

in their learning process by building a rapport with them through her lively and caring personality. For example, at the beginning of every class, the teacher spends some time having informal conversations with students about their routine, weekend activities, exams, and sharing her own experiences. The way she positions herself in these conversations reveals her maternalistic persona.

During the interview, the instructor shared a negative experience she had with a professor in college which directly influenced the way she perceives the students. *“That’s just not what I want to be. They must never feel that I, as an instructor, feel far superior to them that, you know, we’re human beings, we’re going to make mistakes. You have to take a few risks. So what if you make a few mistakes, keep trying, you will improve.”*

The empathy she shows towards her students seems to be very important when dealing with students from different cultural backgrounds. In this classroom, as expected, culture plays a very important role and, therefore, cannot be denied. The literature in second language writing shows a major concern regarding the difference between helping students understand and become familiar with a certain culture and trying to replace students’ cultural background with another worldview as a form of acculturation. In American education, students are required and encouraged to demonstrate a high level of critical thinking rather than just being able to summarize other people's ideas. This Western view of what is expected from students is also present in the teacher’s approach, as she explains: *“If you have the student who never speaks up. Who is unwilling to verbalize any concerns during peer reviews and he or she literally raises that hand*

and/or asks to see me after class or actually risks answering a question. It's a major victory.” In summary, the data suggest that, even though the teacher attempts to initiate students into a Western academic culture, her approach shows respect and consideration for students’ home culture and background.

RQ2: How Are the Pedagogical Approaches Adopted in the Researched Environment Affected by the Age Range and Academic Writing Level of the Students?

Another prominent characteristic of the researched classroom regards the students’ age range. As part of the Kansas Academy of Mathematics and Science (KAMS), the students attending this composition class are high school students attending college classes due to their giftedness. As shown in the literature review, research on early entrance programs in the United States is scarce and deals primarily with social and psychological issues. Additionally, since the assessment of gifted students is often based on their performance within the STEM fields, no previous studies seem to have investigated the pedagogical approaches to teaching writing to these students in the first-year college composition class; neither has the presence of second-language writers in this setting been researched.

Teaching adolescents does not present a significant challenge to the teacher because of her extensive experience with secondary education before starting her career at the college level. The two-faceted ethos of the teacher, which was developed through her teaching experiences, once again appears to inform a great deal of what happens

within and around the learning process in this class. Moreover, although these students are considered overachievers within their fields, in addition to their writing development, the teacher needs to deal with issues regarding a possible lack of academic readiness and personal dilemmas that may affect their success.

Regular college students are often forced to grow up faster in order to keep up with the demands of college life. Although it might also be the case of these students in many situations, the teacher shows awareness that younger students might have a harder time to learn in an environment they might consider uninteresting and too distant from their everyday life. To avoid that, the teacher resorts to her ethos to make classes more enjoyable while she attempts to interact with topics that interest the students. For example, during the class, instead of letting the generational gap between the adolescent students and the senior teacher form a barrier, the teacher uses her age as a rhetorical tool to make students laugh, which turns the classroom into a friendlier environment.

Frequently and in a joking way, she makes reference to her own age and makes comparisons between her generation and the students' generation, which tends to build a rapport between them, as she states in the interview: *"I think I'm naturally a person who enjoys laughing and I like to inject, you know, a little humor into learning, but I also think there are some topics that are quite poignant and I want them to have empathy for appropriate situations where they should feel empathy. So, it's not that I'm happy-go-lucky all the time, but I feel by example you can demonstrate a person should and often can appropriately demonstrate a wide range of emotions and the interest and so forth*

and enthusiasm helps. They can tell if you like what you do. Let's face it." This statement summarizes the way the teacher deals with the young students and shows how she perceives the importance of turning the act of learning into an enjoyable activity, which seems to indicate that the teacher also negotiates her teaching style based on her beliefs about the learning needs of early-college entrants and more inexperienced writers.

The teacher's ethos is also present in her pedagogy when, instead of trying to be the only source of knowledge, the teacher assumes a humbling position of learning from the students, also showing that she is interested and values their ideas. For example, during one of the classes, the teacher asked students to share the topics they had chosen for their assignment. As a student said she intended to write about the dangers of eating disorders communities on Pinterest and Instagram, the teacher's immediate response was *"Please, educate me! What are those?"* The way the teacher reacted encouraged the student to further explain the topic in detail and express her concerns about the audience. Subsequently, the teacher interacted with the student and the class by highlighting the importance of the topic and sharing personal experiences with her grandchildren. This kind of interaction seems to be part of the teacher's pedagogical approach to build a good relationship with the students, value their ideas, and also help them refine their topics and arguments.

The age range of the students seems to also lead the teacher to constantly remind students of behaviors and attitudes she considers important to their academic life. In the course syllabus, the teacher states: *"Although they will not be graded, rough drafts for*

the three assigned major essays are required by specified due dates. Reasonable excuses include death in the family, natural disaster, or serious illness. (Verification of reason for excused absence is required.).... [I]f a student does not meet an essay 'final draft' deadline, his/her grade will be reduced 10 percent (one letter grade) for each day past the deadline. If the paper is submitted more than five days after the deadline, the student will receive a zero for that assignment." Although many teachers might use statements such as the above to make students aware of expectations and possible consequences, the syllabus information does not seem to be enough for these students. Probably because of her experience with adolescents, the teacher constantly feels the need to remind students of regular procedures regarding punctuality, due dates, and absences. Not only does she remind students in class, but she also reinforces the reminders on Blackboard:

Blackboard Reminders	
If Absent from Comp Class Today - Monday, April 9 <small>Posted on: Monday, April 9, 2018 11:44:27 AM CDT</small>	Please submit your research paper to Safe Assignment TODAY! <small>Posted on: Tuesday, April 10, 2018 12:35:22 PM CDT</small>
For Monday, April 30 - Please Arrive on Time! <small>Posted on: Saturday, April 28, 2018 7:24:08 PM CDT</small>	Upcoming Assignments/Deadlines <small>Posted on: Wednesday, April 18, 2018 9:45:07 AM CDT</small>

Figure 3. Examples of reminders posted by the instructor on Blackboard.

While students are often expected to act as adults and become more independent when they enter college, helping these students manage their time and schedule is one of the teacher's concerns. In order to do that, she demonstrates a broad knowledge of the way the KAMS program works, of students' schedules, and seems to have close contact

with the faculty in charge of the program. For example, some students are frequently late for class and, instead of becoming frustrated, the teacher always acted naturally or even said she was glad they had arrived. When asked about the situation in the interview, the teacher explained that she was aware that some were late because their schedule or exams, and others did not have a reasonable explanation. Regardless of that, the teacher always showed understanding and flexibility. She also reports that, like in high school, she has already dealt with behavior issues and students who were resistant to her teaching style; however, these facts were not noticed with this particular group of students during class observations but might pose a new set of challenges for teachers dealing with this student population.

Another factor the teacher needs to take into consideration regards the way students' social life outside the classroom affects the classroom dynamics, as the teacher states in the interview: *"I think, just like an American high school, there can be cliques, and I have noticed the cliques in that class, and I'd seen this before in KAMS classes. Just like I saw in American high schools where three or four will kind of shove someone to the outside. And that is a problem you do not see in a typical undergraduate class. But, in essence, they are living together. They are going to classes together. And so, contempt for each other and all resentment or jealousy or you know, that boy likes you more than me. But I'll fix you. That petty stuff. [T]hey're 16 years old. So that definitely comes into play."* Because of the limited number of class observations and the time they occurred, the way the class dynamics and seating arrangements were established could not be

observed. However, these social and cultural issues might explain the teacher's challenges to split students into groups and the reason she tends to take a central role in the interactions. For example, in one class, the teacher had written notes for a group activity. As some students were absent, it took her about ten minutes to rearrange the groups. She tried not to let students notice the criteria she was using to group them together by saying it was her "difficulty with Math". However, a closer analysis reveals how difficult it might be to propose simple activities, such as in-group work, in this complex classroom. The teacher needs to take into consideration language skills, writing experience, social skills, and personal conflicts.

PEDAGOGICAL APPLICATIONS

RQ3: Given the Insight from the Findings, How do the Observed Pedagogical Practices Relate to the Recent Discussion on the Needs of Second-language Writers and Early College Entrance Students?

The metalanguage the teacher uses to teach writing and also when she talks about her beliefs about teaching showed, as anticipated, that her training was mostly grounded in the traditional theories of composition. Some of these theories, largely accepted in the U.S. academic discourse, were developed with focus on a homogeneous population and therefore tended to impose dominant forms of writing, speaking, and thinking. The analysis of the teacher's actual practices, however, surprisingly revealed a tacit knowledge that relates to current research on second-language writers' needs, which also seems to be applicable to the work with early-entrant students. This session aims at discussing these pedagogical practices in relation to the theoretical assumptions proposed by recent theories. By doing so, it seeks to answer RQ3, while showing the applications of this research discussion to writing pedagogies in the contexts of second-language writers and early-college entrants.

The pedagogical practices adopted to deal with second-language students and early-college entrants may require that the teacher seek different kinds of negotiations and accommodations in some aspects. For example, a second-language writer might come from a more rigid culture and be used to managing their own schedule while early college entrants may need more support in this respect. On the other hand, early-college

entrants may present more advanced language skills and need less linguistic support. The enrollment of international students in college classes through early college entrance programs combines these two variables, which results in complex and interesting classrooms

Regarding the way the observed pedagogical practices relate to the work of Matsuda, it is important to note that in his early historical accounts, the author seemed to create a sharp division between international students and domestic students, which indicated a contrastive approach to teaching, wherein these two student populations were put in a constant conflict. On his later works, however, Matsuda seems to have changed the focus of his research from historical accounts to more practice-centered studies. In these studies, his discourse seems to be aligned with intercultural ways of dealing with cultural and linguistic differences.

When the teacher participant talks about herself, as in the traditional role of her ethos, she still echoes some of her monolingual training, strongly criticized by Matsuda. The way she portrays herself does not seem to have a negative impact on her pedagogy. However, it is important that older and new teacher be aware that multilingual students raised in other cultures might need more extensive definitions and explanations certain terms, emphasized in the U.S. academic culture, might not be relevant or be seen differently in other cultures. For example, the CCCC statement treats as textual borrowing what is understood as plagiarism in American academic culture and many other places. The understanding of textual borrowing acknowledges that the utilization of

sources vary from culture to culture, while plagiarism immediately suggests a wrong action. The use of the word “plagiarism” is not problematic in itself, but teachers need to be cognizant of cultural differences to it.

As for the discussion on Global Englishes and STROL, it seems that the teacher does not include any practices that directly address these theories. As pointed out in the literature review, there’re still many debates on the validity and effect of these approaches on students’ learning. Since the students in the composition classes formed groups from three different nationalities and languages, they could have been encouraged to work together to develop their ideas. These students, however, often want to practice and improve their English skills, which would probably be problematic for the application of both STROL and World English theories due to the short period of English class they have a week and their need to become more proficient in academic English to succeed in their academic courses. In spite of that, the teacher shows awareness of second-language writers’ language issues and tries to negotiate her beliefs with students’ capabilities by participating with them in their learning process.

Additionally, although the language flexibility does not seem to be present in this composition classroom, the teacher allows and emphasizes students’ right to their culture and interests. As she teaches the topics she considers important, such as audience, she encourages students to write about their cultures and interests, which seems to be one of the strategies she uses to increase students’ interest in writing. By doing this, she negotiates and accommodates the possible lack of culture-bound information from

international students, which makes their writing process harder, and also motivates the younger students who commonly lack interest in writing. These strategies should be considered by any teachers working with these students populations, but composition teacher should also be cognizant of the benefits and challenges of developing pedagogies that include ideas from World Englishes and STROL theories since these approaches may build students' confidence in writing and also value their cultural identities.

Lastly, the scholarship on early-college entrants seems to primarily emphasize the importance of emotional and social support for students' success as these factors directly affect their academic achievements. Sociocultural theories of second-language learning (See Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2015) also focus on the impact of affective factors on students' learning. Second-language theory, however, has also built a substantial body of scholarship that focuses on the teaching and learning of languages. On the other hand, the research on early-college entrants has not discussed pedagogical practices to teach these students, especially writing pedagogies, which is an important area of inquiry since early-college entrants often take first-year college composition and, like regular students, are required to write in other in the disciplines.

Considering the gap found in the available research, this study touched on second-language writers' teaching pedagogy, then on pedagogical practices to teaching composition classes to early-college entrance programs and, finally, moved towards even more complex discussions. It looked at a composition classroom comprised of second-language writers and a native speaker of English who are also early-college entrants to

understand how the observed teacher dealt with such a diverse body of students. Among the literature reviewed, the Intercultural Rhetoric Theory became prominent and was used to frame the data analysis, especially because its claims seem to account for the complexity of the researched classroom through an intercultural perspective that advocates for teaching practices that promote mutuality rather than division.

Although not familiar with Connor's scholarship, the instructor seems to adopt practices that constantly seek for cultural and linguistic negotiations and accommodations. Both college-early entrants and second-language writers may show many cultural and linguistic variations from traditional students, which might require more instances in which these adaptations are needed. In applying an intercultural approach to teaching writing, teachers need to consider both small and large cultures present in the interactions with students. By small cultures, Connor means more immediate context, such as personal experiences, while the large culture refers to broader contexts, such a national and disciplinary cultures. Taking these nuances of culture into consideration is crucial as they provide important information about the moments and what kind of negotiations and accommodations will be appropriate in each instance of teaching.

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

As this research shows, the specific characteristics of the researched classroom creates challenges for the instructor. These challenges, specifically when they come together into the same classroom, might not be a topic discussed during teacher training, which may surprise a teacher who starts teaching these groups of students unaware of their peculiarities. The present research can be a useful resource for new teachers dealing with this diverse students populations. In general, it is important that the teacher be prepared and willing to take on an extra flexible posture to make room for the negotiations and accommodations these students require. New teachers should consider replicating some of the observed pedagogical practices described above, for example, allowing time in the curriculum for individual conferences and after-class meetings. Additionally, the use of Blackboard to clarify information and remind students of due dates seems to be an effective practice. It is also advisable, based on the teacher's experience, that the instructor works closely together with the Writing Center to help students develop their writing. Finally, although the teacher participant naturally presents personality traits that help her work with these students, some of the major characteristics, such as being flexible and patient, providing positive feedback, and having an assertive attitude when necessary might be developed through training, reading, and practice. Therefore, teachers should not be discouraged to accept the challenge to work with these students because of that.

Future research might further the present discussion by considering the applications of an Intercultural Rhetoric approach in a larger-scale. It would also be interesting to perform text analysis of students' writing through an intercultural rhetoric lens, especially in a classroom where this theory was also used to support pedagogy. This research hopes to modestly contribute to the fields of second-language writing and early-college entrants as it attempts to bring these two contexts together within the discussion on writing pedagogies and composition studies.

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